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ABSTRACT

Female students at Notre Dame College were surveyed to determine whether their perceptions of mentoring relationships are positive. Chapter 1 examines the historical and present day role of mentors and the mentoring relationship. Five research studies that explored mentoring are discussed in chapter 2. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the present research study, chapter 4 presents the data from the research analysis, and chapter 5 presents the conclusions supported by the study, draws connections from earlier chapters, and discusses implications and future research. Data were analyzed quantitatively; results show that female students were more positive about the mentoring relationship than male students. In addition, students who attended public school reported being more positive about mentoring relationships than students who attended private school. Upper classmen also indicated more positive perceptions of mentoring relationships than lower classmen. The results confirm that perceptions of mentoring reported by female students are positive. Appendixes are: "A Mentoring Questionnaire," "Informed Consent for Interview," "Interview Protocol," and "Abbreviated Interview Responses." (Contains 23 references, 5 tables, and 3 graphs.) (Author/MKA)

The Effects of Mentoring At-Risk Female College Students

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July 28, 1997

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my mother and father,
Judith and Shaun Carroll.
Although we all have traveled very different paths,
who I am, what I have become,
and how I perceive mentoring came from them.

Acknowledgments

I would first like to acknowledge all the women in my life who have been mentors in one way or another. The people in my family that come to mind are my grandmother, Dora Harriman, my sisters, Deborah Spear and Laura Gallo. My professional mentors, Deborah Mozden, Marilynn Reed, Shirley St. Hilaire, and Randa Tenney. My personal friends/mentors, Melody Nester, Rhonda Elie, Valerie Balch, Tracey Sala, Janelle Neisse, June Klecek, Kerri Desmares, Julie Dailey, Laurie LeVesque, Shirley Iacopino, and Toyin Odueyungbo. These women believe in me.

I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my committee members, Nancy Cook, Paul Groleau, and Elsie Barnard. For challenging me academically and taking the time to teach me what I need to know to succeed.

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The last acknowledgment I would like to make is to my children, Hillary and Keirin Carroll. For sharing computer time, not disturbing Mom when the door is closed, and for seeing me as a smart, strong mother/mentor.

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Abstract

Female students at Notre Dame College were surveyed to determine whether or not their perceptions of mentoring relationships are positive. Data were analyzed quantitatively. Female students were more positive about the mentoring relationship than male students. In addition students who attended public school reported being more positive about mentoring relationships than students who attended private school. Upper classmen also indicated more positive perceptions of mentoring relationships than lower classmen. The results confirm that perceptions of mentoring relationships reported by female students are positive.

Chapter I

A description of effective mentoring is first found within the pages of Homer's *Odyssey.* Telemachus, son of Odysseus, was guided in both his position as well as in his personal mannerisms towards others by Athene, goddess of wisdom, who took the form of Mentor. Telemachus became a successful warrior (Stalker, 1994). Remarkably, the modern day "Mentor" exists for twenty two students at Tobin School in Boston. Northeastern University has promised these students a college education free of charge if they stay in school and graduate. This promise was made to the students during their sixth grade year. Each student who agrees to these terms is assigned a mentor who is currently attending Northeastern. Mentors meet with them weekly and help them with educational needs such as studying, completing homework, and staying on top of their school work. To date these students all have graduated from the eighth grade and all are planning on keeping their part of the bargain (Hart, 1995).

Unlike Telemachus, today's students do not need lessons in fighting battles or wars. Students do need help in fighting the problems that affect their success in the school environment. It is important to look at what mentors with good qualities, such as Athene, possess as well as what it means to mentor. Athene coached and nurtured Telemachus into a successful grown man.

Mentoring can be defined as a one on one relationship involving an adult and a child within which the adult provides support that enhances academic achievement, career vocation, social behavior and the personal goals of the child. Mentoring relationships can happen naturally or within the structure of a specific program designed to link adults with children who need added support during their school years (McPartland, 1991).

Mentoring may be one of the best ways to improve children's lives and, in turn, improve their academic achievement. According to Thomas Evans (1992) mentoring has helped many children and adolescents who are at-risk, become more competent. Evans believes that if children develop one-on-one relationships with tutors within the school

environment, then the relationship can motivate the children to work harder while also supporting them in their efforts.

At times, mentors may also serve as advocates for children. Advocating is defined as providing support by connecting children with appropriate services that are offered within the local community. Advocates can be social workers, counselors, youth workers or program coordinators. Typically, advocates work with the same group of students for an extended period of time offering support that includes identifying children's or adolescents' needs as well as referring them to agencies that provide specific services. Another aspect of advocating is monitoring the child's progress within a referred program over a certain period of time (McPartland, 1991).

In a recent address given in Washington D.C., Geoffrey Canada, a well children's advocate, discusses the idea that our children live with "monsters" everyday. These monsters deprive them of heat in their homes, plumbing that works, a warm meal, and safe neighborhoods. Canada feels it is the job of adults in these communities to educate themselves about what is happening to our children and to become their heroes through volunteer work. Advocating for children or mentoring a young adult who needs support and is not receiving it from home, is a place to begin (Canada, 1996).

It is commonly believed that voluntary services such as mentoring and advocacy can provide youth with experiences that improve their overall academic performance, and may also positively affect their sense of citizenship within the school environment. Many feel that intensive individual attention is necessary in working with children and youth who are placed at risk. Children who are placed at risk are most likely to drop out of school or have very low achievement scores. According to Joy Dryfoos, a child advocate who volunteers her time and home to at risk youth, there is no one method of dealing with at risk youth that effectively improves school achievement and lessens the drop out rate (Santrock, 1995). Dryfoos reported, based on her experience, that many of the in-place programs that are currently used in our school systems are not effective. One specific

reason for this ineffectiveness is that they do not help placed at-risk youth stay connected to school and complete their education. Rather, many in this group face suspension, detention, expulsion, security guards, and corporal punishment instead of help. These programs are designed to address negative behavior instead of stimulating or encouraging placed at-risk students to stay in school and work on improving their academic abilities through positive reinforcement. Dryfoos encourages programs which incorporate multiple components within the school environment. One component of these programs she suggests is one-on-one relationship building with adults in the community (Santrock, 1995).

It appears that advocates who are currently working with at-risk youth feel that building relationships with young people help them to succeed within a school environment. If, in fact, relationship building can successfully prevent scholastic issues from becoming detrimental to the child's educational development, then it may follow that relationship building may also be effective among adult mentors and women within an educational setting.

There are obstacles which may prevent a positive outcome for a women being mentored in an educational setting. One such obstacle might be a poor relationship with a mentor. If the relationship between the mentor and mentee is poor, then it may also have an adverse effect on mentees' work as well as cause anxiety and stress. Carol Bartz, chair and CEO of Autodesk and an active mentor herself, encourages women to look for three things when searching for a mentoring relationship. The three things are a role model, a promoter and sponsor, and a counselor (Kolbe, 1994). Bartz also suggests that the mentee ask herself what she is hoping to learn from the mentor. This would help to alleviate any negative outcomes and also help to identify the needs of the women in order to choose a good mentor.

Similarly, Denis Boyles believes that the identification of a mentor who fits a person's needs is very important. Potential mentors are easily recognizable by prospective

mentees. Boyles' advice is to look for a mentor who "will walk your walk and talk your talk." He further argues that the right mentor will be a person who can articulate ideas and concerns at a higher level and ,most importantly, have the same values as the mentors (Boyles, 1995).

The nature of the mentoring relationship may have particular implications for women since the issue of balance comes into play. Because women frequently are in the position of being the primary care giver of their families or of their children, women may be more likely than men to seek mentors to whom they can relate personally. Although women are becoming more visible in upper level positions in the work place, they often may feel stretched to the limit and lack the time to become mentors. This scarcity of available female mentors impacts greatly on women in search of such relationships (Saltzman, 1996).

Time limits constraints and parenting challenges may make mentoring relationships difficult from both mentor and mentee perspectives for women in the business world. There are also time limits and challenges faced by young women in school settings. Young women in schools face many challenges when they are placed at-risk. These challenges include high divorce rates, pregnancy, and increased geographic mobility of families. The break-up of the family unit due to divorce can lead to less attention to school work and more attention focused on the familial situation and children. Pregnancy often causes young girls or women to give up their education due to exhaustion from the care of a child or lack of support from their families for completion of school. Geographic mobility of families can lead to students moving and entering many different school systems therefore causing great gaps in education (Santrock, 1995). According to William J. Wilson (1990), the economic trend since the early seventies has directly affected adults who have less than twelve years of school. There are an increasing number of jobs requiring more than twelve years of schooling resulting and a dramatic increase in joblessness in people with less education. Females who leave school early have a harder

time finding a job to support themselves than women who are able to complete a college education. Therefore we should be developing programs that encourage students to go to college, stay in school, and achieve their best academically to prepare them for the changing world of work.

Dr. Mary Pipher, a clinical psychologist who has been working with teenagers for twenty years with a special focus on at risk teenage girls, refers to a poem that her grandfather read to her about people falling off cliffs. All the townspeople got together to discuss whether or not to build a fence at the top of the cliffs or to provide ambulances at the bottom (Pipher, 1995). At-risk female students can be seen as the people who are falling off the cliff. It is important to build the fences that prevent falling of people because there is no "bandage" large enough to compensate for lack of education.

While mentoring within the educational environment seems to be lacking for female students, mentoring in the business world has dramatically increased. Today mentoring in the work place has a different look than the traditional "protege shadowing the mentor" format. These newer models of mentoring appearing in the business sector focus on the specific needs of individual women. These models have been developed due to the increasing need for women to have mentors as well as smaller budgets and downsizing of companies. A different kind of mentoring is evolving. At NYNEX they have formed mentoring circles which match eight mentees with one mentor. Colgate-Palmolive has created a "quad" which links one white male, one minority or white female, and a minority woman or male with one volunteer mentor. This latest form of mentoring has been very successful in addressing the needs of minorities and women (Granfield, 1992).

Outside of the business circles, mentoring has existed within certain Native American cultures in order to help their children make the transition into adulthood. Mentoring such as that seen within an aboriginal structure may be particularly appropriate for women college students. The aboriginal structure encourages the mentor to establish a

close, personal relationship with the student, while, at the same time, to expect, excellence. Ultimately the mentor and the student are partners. Traditionally a very patriarchal paradigm has dominated higher education. Many male students succeeded in this paradigm. However many women were not successful apparently because of the lack of relationship needs that women appear to value. Therefore it is not surprising that the aboriginal structure is far more favorable to women who seek mentoring relationships than is the patriarchal paradigm (Paterson, & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994).

Currently many students come to colleges without the support and advocacy that they received when living in the home environment. A large portion of college students may lack support from home but strongly desire to further their education only to find themselves lost in the college environment. Mentoring may be the mechanism that will support these students and make the difference.

Elie Wiesel (1996) says, "The greatest evil in the world is not anger or hatred, but indifference. The opposite also holds true: The greatest love is the attention we pay to each other..."(p.19). Mentoring and advocating for female students is one way to pay attention to needs. Taking responsibility as an educated person to ensure another person does not fall through the cracks and leave college is another.

In an attempt to understand what factors must exist to develop and more fully utilize the mentoring relationship as it pertains to the college environment, it is necessary to further explore the perceptions of those attending undergraduate programs. The following questions are necessary in order to pursue a better understanding of mentoring relationships:

1. What are undergraduate students' perceptions of mentoring relationships?
2. How are the perceptions similar in students who attended private school and students who attended public school and how are they different?
3. How are the perceptions similar in freshmen and seniors and how are they different?

4. Are there other factors that affect undergraduate perceptions of mentor relationships?

Chapter II

Section One

The first five studies looked at for research purposes are *Using community adults as advocates or mentors for at-risk middle school students: A two-year evaluation of project RAISE,* by James M. McPartland and Saundra Murray Nettles (1991); *ENLACE Success rates compared to success rates of other Chicano/Latino students in the same courses*, by John Kangas (1993); "Combining of traditional counseling, instruction, and mentoring functions with academically deficient college freshmen," by Martin Obler, Kim Francis, and Robyn Wishengrad (1977); "Mentoring at-risk high school students: Evaluation of a school-based program," by Ellen Slicker and Douglas J. Palmer (1993), and the exploratory post-hoc analysis of mentoring at-risk high school students: "Evaluation of a school based program," by Ellen Slicker and Douglas J. Palmer (1993).

Three studies, McPartland's (1991), Slicker's (1993), and Slicker's post-hoc (1993), are similar in that their independent variables all include mentoring and their dependent variables all include achievement and attendance/drop out rate. MCPartland's (1991) research question asks if time spent participating in a specific project called, RAISE, with a mentor and an advocate positively affects students' achievement and attendance.

Slicker addresses several research questions. One of Ellen Slicker's (1993) research questions asks, whether mentoring at-risk students reduces their drop out rate as compared to those students who have not been mentored. Slicker also asks if the self concept of at-risk students who are mentored improve as compared to those students who are not mentored and if academic achievement of at-risk students who are mentored improve over those who are not mentored. Slicker's independent variable is similar to McPartland's (1991) in that there are three dependent variables in Slicker's study: achievement, the drop out rate and self concept.

In her post-hoc analysis Slicker's (1993) research questions include (1) does effective mentoring of at-risk students reduce their drop out rate as compared to those students who were ineffectively mentored, (2) does effective mentoring improve academic achievement of at-risk students as compared to those students who were ineffectively mentored, and (3) does effective mentoring of at-risk students improve their self concept over those students who were ineffectively mentored. Slicker defines mentoring as an independent variable with three levels effective mentoring, ineffective mentoring, and no mentoring at all. Slickers' post-hoc looks again at achievement, drop out rate and self concept as dependent variables.

Obler's (1977) and Kangas' (1993) studies are similar in that they look at services that include mentoring as their independent variable and both look at grades as a measure of the dependent variable. Martin Ober's research questions ask if a specific program, "TMC" (the amount of services) reduces failure rate, improves communication between staff and student, reduces "revolving door" effect and improves attitudes about the program. Obler's second independent variable is high school averages. Obler's dependent variables are student attitude responses and college grades. The third dependent variable that Kangas examines is transfer rate.

The study design of the five studies are similar in that they are all quantitative quasi-experiments. Four of the studies, excluding Slickers' post-hoc (1993) are designed to be experimental with two levels of the independent variable.. The treatment is mentoring or services inclusive of mentoring. In these studies, the control group received neither mentoring or services. In Slickers' post-hoc study the independent variable has three levels. One level consisted of students who were mentored "effectively." The second level consisted of students who were mentored "ineffectively." The third level consisted of students who received no mentoring at all. All of the studies were conducted in real life situations within a school setting. The researchers could not randomly assign the students to the control group or the treatment group because the

treatment group was formed by students who were considered at-risk. This lack of control causes them to be quasi experiments rather than true experiments. Slicker (1993) used a pre-post design with the experimental group and the control group.

The measurement tool is the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (PHCSCS). In Slickers' post-hoc (1993) she used only a pre test (PHCSCS), as a form of measurement of the dependent variable, with both of the experimental groups and the control group. Two studies used only a post test. McPartland (1991) used a seventy five item questionnaire for measurement after the treatment. Obler (1977) used the California Achievement Test (CAT) after the treatment. Finally, Kangas (1993) employed a one shot method of data collection..

All five studies' results can be challenged by several rival hypotheses. Kangas' (1993) study has a history problem since it had inaccurate accounts of the race of his subjects because some students self reported the wrong race. McPartland (1991) and Slicker (1993) both experienced diffusion because the mentors themselves did not provide the required treatment. Obler (1977) experienced diffusion because of faculty resistance to the program that was being implemented. The two rival hypotheses that appeared to be dissimilar and only present in one study each were regression effect with McPartland (1991) due to the extremely at-risk subjects and subdivision of the sample found in Slickers' (1993) post-hoc.

The samples in all the studies are students who are identified as at-risk. However at-risk is defined very differently for each study. McPartland (1991) identifies at risk as being of an extremely low socio economic level. His sample was chosen from children who had successfully completed the fifth grade. Slicker (1993), in both her original study and her post-hoc, identifies at-risk as being unable to pass the required courses offered at the particular school of attendance. Her sample is composed of tenth graders. Obler (1977) identifies at-risk as being of certain races. He identifies the races as Black or Puertorican. His sample is composed of college age students in their freshman year.

Similarly Kangas (1993) identifies at-risk as being of certain races. He identifies the races as Chicano and Latino. His sample is composed of college age students in their first two years of college.

All five studies used the same method for selecting their samples. They identified the schools where students of the population that they wished to study attended. Therefore all of the sample populations are considered clusters. All five studies are identified as convenient in their sampling because they were not randomly selected.. Two of the studies, Obler (1977) and Kangas (1993), used a sample size of one hundred and fifty students. Slicker (1993) used a sample size of eighty six for her original study and a sample size of twenty two for her post-hoc. The largest sample size was four hundred and fifty by McPartland (1991).

All five studies, because of their quantitative quality, use standardized prompts and limited responses in collecting their data. Three of the studies, Obler (1977), Slicker (1993), and Slickers' post-hoc (1993), can be considered to have some degree of reliability and validity because they all use an instrument of measurement. Obler used a self assessment of seventy five questions as a pre and a post. Obler also used the Pearson split-half analysis with the experimental and control students in order to show evidence of reliability. Slicker used the PHCSCS (Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale). Slicker also used GPA's (grade point averages) of the sample population over the course of their high school years, the drop out status records and the mentor logs. In her post-hoc Slicker subdivided by taking the answers from the PHCSCS that had to do with affirmation of positive mentoring and non affirmation of positive mentoring. This was purely self reported. Slicker also used records to determine the drop out rate and the mentor logs. The mentor logs used in both of Slickers' studies are the only example of the use of non individualized prompts and open responses. It is unclear how she used the mentor logs in both studies.

Kangas (1993) and McPartland (1991) are similar in their use of pre determined events and school records as data sources. Specifically McPartland used the absence rate and the CAT for data collection. Kangas' collected data for pre determined events were race and McPartlands' socio economic status. These make for weak study designs because the data from these may not be reliable or valid. He also used the Pearson split-half analysis in order to estimate the data collection reliability.

Two of the studies are similar in that they used descriptive statistics in order to analyze their data. Obler (1977) used tables with an explanatory narrative. Kangas (1993) also used tables with an explanatory narrative. Kangas used simple frequencies and bar graphs to represent his data. Obler used his tables to supplement his studies, while Kangas used mostly tables and bar graphs and very little explanatory narratives.

The other three studies are similar because they used tables and inferential statistics in order to come to a conclusion about the population from which samples were chosen. Although the three used inferential statistics, McPartland (1991) used a multiple regression analysis while Slicker (1993) used Chi-Square and ANCOVA analysis for both her original study and her post-hoc. Slicker also used a T- test and a Ryon-Einot-Gabriel-Welsch multiple F test in her post-hoc. McPartland used a multiple regression analysis even though his independent variables are both categorical. McPartland was able to use a multiple regression analysis because he quantified a "dummy variable" by giving a "zero" code for students who were not enrolled in RAISE and a "one" code for students who were enrolled in RAISE. He used a dummy variable because the independent variable was not continuous as is generally required for multiple regression. A multiple regression analysis was done on the grade five spring scores on the standardized tests in reading, math, and language arts. Also included in the regression model were students sex and race , students' age in grade five and the dummy variable for students enrolled in the RAISE program. Another reason for using a multiple regression analysis was to provide clarity of their analysis. Slicker used Chi-Square analysis to look at the association

between program participation and drop out rate. Chi-square analysis was used to see if there were a statisticaly significant difference in the drop out rate of the students who were mentored and the students who were not. Slicker used an analysis of covariance to answer whether or not mentoring of at-risk students improved their self-concept over those students who were not mentored and also if mentoring improved academic achievement over that of students who were not mentored. The ANCOVA was used to determine if the control group and the experimental group had any significant post treatment differences for the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and the Grade Point Averages after initial individual differences were controlled. The covariates for the ANCOVAs were the PHCSCS and the Metropolitan Achievement Scores. In Slickers' post-hoc study she used Chi-Square analysis to see if there were any statisticaly significant differences in the dropout rate between the two experimental groups. The groups compared were effectively mentored at-risk students and ineffectively mentored at-risk students. A t-test was done in order to compare the effects on self-concept and academic achievement of the effectively mentored at-risk students verses the ineffectively mentored at-risk students. Slicker used a two tailed t test, which is nondirectional, to test her hypothesis that there are no significant differences between the two experimental groups on pretreatment and posttreatment means of the dependent variables, self concept and achievement. Slicker used the prior ANCOVA results that looked at whether or not there was a significant statistical pretreatment difference for the PHCSCS or the grade point averages and the post-hoc Ryan-Einot-Gabriel-Welsch Multiple F test to compare the effectively mentored at-risk students, the ineffectively mentored at-risk students, and the students who were not mentored. The test was used to see if there was improvement in their self concept and their academic achievement. Slicker used it in order to show some significant statistical differences between the three groups.

The results of the Obler (1977) and Kangas (1993) studies which used descriptive statistics show a substantial difference between the experimental groups and the control

groups. Obler's results indicate that there are three major points where the experimental treatment group showed superior results when compared with the results of the control group. One point is in the retention ratio. In the 1970 control group 56.8 were active with 43.2 percent inactive while the control group was 38 percent active and 62 percent inactive. In 1971, 62.4 percent of the experimental group were still active while the control group was 58 percent active. From 1972-1973 the data on the variable were stated as being more elaborate due to the change in evaluation. From 1974-1975 a post evaluation (75 item questionnaire) indicated that 77.7 percent of the experimental population was active. Therefore retention appeared to increase for the students in the experimental group. The second major finding concerned the number of credits completed during freshman and sophomore years. In 1970 the mean index for credits completed by students was 51. The mean index for the control group was 46 credits completed. In 1971 the mean index for credits completed by the experimental group was 40. Fewer students in the control group completed 40 credits. From 1972-1973 the credits diminished in this particular year for both the experimental and the control group. Similarly from 1974-1975 the results diminished for both the experimental and the control group. The third major point looked at grade deviation. Specifically, was there a positive or negative grade deviation for either the experimental group or the control group. Grade deviation was analyzed at the end of each year because of the change of the population each fall semester. In 1970 the experimental population had a 64 percent positive deviation and a 32 percent negative deviation. A grade deviation for the control group population was not reported. In 1971 the experimental group population had a 70.4 percent positive deviation and a 29.6 percent negative deviation. From 1972-1973 it was reported that the experimental group fell slightly below the control group in grade deviation (percentages were not available). From 1974-1975, using the 75- item questionnaire, students from the experimental group reported improvements in reading (57.4 percent), writing (55.6 percent), and math (55.7 percent).

Kangas (1993) similarly reports his success rates using percentages of both the experimental and the control groups. The experimental group (ENLACE students) had a 70 percent overall success rate as compared with the 55 percent overall success rate of the control group. The experimental group had a success rate of 79 percent in English 1A as compared with the control group who had a 44 percent success rate. The experimental group had a success rate of 79 percent in English 104 as compared to 65 percent success rate obtained by the control group. Over a period of nine semesters the experimental group had consistently higher success rate than the control group.

The results of McPartland (1991) and Slicker (1993) were also similar. McPartland reported that there were no statistically significant differences between the experimental group (RAISE students) and the control group. The experimental group achievement scores were well below the average of the district. One in three students were retained at least once. Slickers' chi-square analysis of the number of students who dropped out of both the experimental and the control groups indicated no difference (X squared = .87, df = 1, p<.20). A significant difference between the experimental group and the control group using the ANCOVA analysis was discovered (E:M = 55.05, sd = 11.62; C:M = 60.87, SD = 10.65). This indicates that the control group was favored (F = 4.40, p < .05). There were no difference found in achievement between the experimental group and the control group (E: M = . 97, SD = .27; C:M = 1.09, sd = .34; F 1.0, p > .10).

Slickers' post-hoc analysis (1993) showed more promising results. Effectively mentored students returned to school the following year at a rate of 100 percent (x squared = 3.40, df = 1, p< .10.) as compared to the ineffectively mentored group of 69 percent and the control group of 74 percent. There were no statistical pretreatment difference between the two experimental groups. The ANCOVA results and the post-hoc Ryan-Einot-Gabriel-Welsch Multiple F test indicate that the effectively mentored group showed an improvement in self concept as compared to the ineffectively mentored group

(EM - IM = 5.02, F = 2.79, p >10). The results also indicated that the ineffectively mentored group showed less improvement in self concept as compared to the control group (C - IM = 6.88, F = 3.42, p <.05). Both the effectively mentored group and the control group improved academically while the ineffectively mentored group showed little improvement (EM - IM = .09, F = 2.98, p < .10).

Overall, all these studies suggest little or no statistically significant effects of using adults as advocates or mentors for at-risk children. There seems to be some improvement with at-risk students in lowering the drop out rate for those who are effectively mentored as compared with students who are ineffectively mentored or not mentored at all (Slicker, 1993). There is insufficient evidence to derive broader conclusions from the Obler (1977) and Kangas (1993) studies, both of which used descriptive statistics to analyze their data. Both studies left out percentages in identifying the experimental groups as being lower in achievement and GPAs than the control groups.

The rival hypotheses experienced by all the studies conducted prevented the study design from being strong. The most disappointing rival hypothesis was seen in Obler (1977). This was diffusion due to faculty resistance of implementation of the program. Attrition which was seen in all the studies is understandable due to the population that was identified in the studies.

All five studies used good sampling methods but McPartland's (1991) Project RAISE advocates allowed more students into their sample size which weakened the design. There were students who were not originally picked for Project RAISE but were allowed to participate based on their need for mentors. Slicker's (1993) post-hoc would have been stronger had her sample size been larger after subdivision. The size of her sample (N = 22) weakens the results of her findings even though she reported having some significance in the drop out rate. Slicker's methods for data collection and measurement also helped to strengthen her studies. Unfortunately Obler (1977) and Kangas (1993) had

extremely poor data collection (almost non existent) which weakened reliability and validity of their data.

All five studies were very clear in their definitions of the levels of the independent variables and the treatment that the experimental groups were to receive. McPartland (1977), and Slickers (1993) both experienced trouble implementing the specific treatment. This could have affected the statistical significance which proved to be nonsignificant in both studies.

Section Two

The results of the previous five studies did not indicate that mentoring is a very effective intervention for students who are considered at risk. One of the reasons could be that the students may have a different perception of what the mentoring relationship should look like. The following five studies specifically address the perceptions of students and the mentoring relationship. Studies in this section include; "Lessons learned from a small grants program," by Gwynn Mettetal, Eileen Bender, and Kelly Burns (1995); "Professional Educators' concerning the mentoring process in the Floyd County Schools: A synthesis," by David R. Murray and Mariko Tinney (1991); "Constructivists' use of mentoring for success in Broadcast Academe," by Kathryn Smoot Egan (1993); "A survey of mentor relationships in Academe," by Laurie Jowers Taylor (1992); "Mentoring, gender, and publication among Social, Natural, and Physical Scientists," by Linda Grant and Kathryn B. Ward.

Gwyn Mettetal (1995) asks, if the Undergraduate Research Fund (URF) has effects on undergraduate research and fostering faculty mentorship. Mettetal also asks if faculty mentorship roles are critical to the success of undergraduates' research programs. The study also looked at the amount and flexibility of both graduate school and job applications. David Maurray (1991) asks, what is the student experience of the mentoring program, what are the specific competencies a mentor should possess prior to becoming a mentor, and what are the strengths and weaknesses of the mentoring program. Kathryn

Smoot Egan (1993) asks how mentoring influences perceptions, of the academic work place, women's success as measured in salary and position, and career planning to include other life goals, such as family caretaking. Laurie Jowers Taylor (1992) asks about behaviors faculty engage in most frequently as mentors, what are the defining characteristics of the mentor/protege relationship, the personal qualities faculty report to be the most important when selecting a mentor, the qualities of the mentor are most important when selecting a mentor, and the importance of the mentor regarding the protege's achievement. Linda Grant (1992) asks about the processes involved in mentoring relationships for women and men, the perceptions of the effectiveness of the relationship, the relationship of the mentoring experience to career productivity, and the links between one's experience as a protege and later mentoring activities as a senior scholar.

The study design of all five studies are similar in that they are quantitative. Mettetal (1995), Murray (1991), Egan (1993), and Taylor (1992) all use questionnaires with Likert Scale responses. Grant (1992) uses a questionnaire that she designed. All five studies included a few open ended questions in the questionnaires that were used for the purpose of enhancing their quantitative findings.

Mettetal's (1995) and Murray's (1991) studies are similar in that they both sample both male and female students. Mettetal (1995) and Murray (1991) also survey mentors and the mentees. Mettetal's (1995) sample consists of sixteen students (N=16) and sixty eight professors (N=68). Fifty eight of the professors were mentors in the URF. The other ten professors were teaching at the college but did not choose to mentor their students within this particular grant program. Murray's (1991) sample consisted of one hundred and eighty seven (N=187) teachers, administrators, mentoring teachers and non mentoring teachers. Of those sampled sixteen were administrators (N=16), thirty two were mentors (N=32), fifty four were proteges (N=54), and eighty five were teachers who had not mentored (N=85).

Grant's (1992) study sample includes men and women scholars teaching in tenured or tenured track position that were listed in the 1990 Guide to Graduate Programs, published annually by the American Sociological Association; the American Chemical Society Directory of Graduate Research, published by the American Chemical Society; and Graduate Programs in Physics, Astronomy, and Related Fields, published by the American Institute of Physics. Her sample consisted of two hundred females (N=200) and two hundred males (N=200).

The other two studies, Egan (1993) and Taylor (1992), were similar in their samples. Both studies surveyed women and all the women belonged to an academic association of some sort. In Egan's (1993) sample the women were listed in the Broadcast Education Association (BEA). Her sample size was fourteen (N=14). Taylor's (1992) sample were women who were full time nurses in academia in the South. Two hundred and eighty five nurses who had experienced a mentoring relationship were sampled (N=285).

Mattetal (1995), Murray (1991), and Egan (1993) samples are considered convenient selection samples while Grant (1992) and Taylor (1992) samples are convenient clusters.

All five studies used questionnaires as a tool of measurement. Egan (1993) and Taylor (1992) were similar in that they used instruments that were already established in their validity. Taylor's (1992) instrument is a mentor subscale that was originally developed by Gilbert (1983) for the purpose of describing characteristics of a role model. The instrument was later adapted by Pierce (1985) to describe characteristics of a role model. The subscales reflect mentor behavior, characteristics of the mentor/protege relationship, personal qualities of the mentor, power and achievement characteristics of the mentor and the protege's achievement. Validity was established using a ten member panel of nurse academic's.

Egan's (1993) instrument is an in depth interview schedule with questions from Belenky et al. (1991). The questions asked the women to describe their success, imagined goals, turning points, risks taken, fears and locus of control, and whether they found a mentor. Murray (1991) and Grant (1992) were similar in they both designed a self administered questionnaire as their tool of measurement. Mettetal (1995) was unclear as to who designed the instrument used in her study.

All five studies used descriptive statistics in order to describe their data. Mettetal (1995) and Murray (1991) used tables and charts with narratives. The other three, Grant (1992), Egan (1993) and Taylor (1992), used inferential statistics. Grant (1992) used Chi-Square and squared regressions to determine the relative impact of mentoring. Egan (1993) took the scores from the interview and used a Cohen's agreement co-efficient using a four category matrix (r. =.98). Taylor (1992) used Cronbach alphas for the 5 scales ranging from .77 to .94 to establish reliability.

The results of Mettetal's (1995) student responses were all considered positive. The highest response (a mean of 3.9 out of a possible 4) was the question "I feel that my URF project helped me in my educational progress." The second highest response was the question "My mentor was available for help." The results of the faculty responses were also positive about most aspects of the program. Faculty who mentored felt more positive about student projects and about mentoring another student in the coming year. Most faculty indicated that mentoring looked good on faculty dossier and was good grant experience.

The results of Murray's (1991) study indicated that all four group perceptions of the program were very positive. All groups perceived the program as providing a real structured assistance for new teachers. All groups indicated that the program built relationships and was instrumental in keeping new teachers in the field. There was no impact on career advancement or promotion and only the administrators felt that the program helped with communication. The highest ranking score from all the groups was

the opportunity to observe the mentor. All groups agreed that the training provided by the program was valuable for the mentors. The most highly valued competencies of a mentor were social skills and providing assistance to the new teacher. Teachers who and were not mentored indicated that the mentored teacher was accepted into the school atmosphere faster and had more opportunity to share their ideas. Overall the respondents felt that the program was an excellent way to provide support and awareness. The weakness of the program fell in the scheduling category and the paper work. The respondents felt that they did not meet as often as they would have liked and there was too much documentation that took away from the mentoring process. The strengths of the program was in the matching mentors. Good matches promoted less stress, better relationships and isolated feelings were reduced.

Grant's (1992) study results indicated that women reported having more difficulty finding a mentor. Seven percent were refused because of their gender. Both women and men valued advisers and supervisors who displayed a combination of fine scientific ability. Both valued mentors who provided professional socialization and mentors who became colleagues. Women in all disciplines complained about advisors or post doctoral supervisors who tried to steer their appointments in directions that they did not want to go. Sexual harassment was reported by 7%. More men than woman were likely to work with a Nobel Laureate advisor (chi-square = 6.79, $p<.03$) or post doctoral supervisor (chi-square = 6.79, $p<.01$).

The results of Egan's (1993) results indicated that women who were mentored were more likely to believe that they learned through experience [$x2$ (4, $\underline{N}$ = 17.5) = 10.3, $p < .04$]. Women who were mentored were more likely to say they had a dream they were beginning to achieve [$x2$ (1, $\underline{N}$ = 17.6) = $p < .02$]. Women who were mentored were more likely to perceive equal opportunity for women in the work place [$x2$ (4, $\underline{N}$ = 17.7) 15.3 $p < .004$] and were more likely to give more time and energy to recreation [$x2$ (1, $\underline{N}$ = 17.6) 4.2, $p < .04$]. Women who were mentored were more likely to receive more than

30,000 a year [$x2$ (7, N = 17.7) 14.4, $p < .04$] and more likely to agree that they had equal opportunity with men to become full professors [$x2$ (4, N = 17.5) 9.2, $p < .05$]. They were also more likely to postpone marriage or having children until careers were established [$x2$ (7, N = 14.3) 19.6, $p < .006$]. Twenty five percent started career, children, and marriage at the same time.

The results of Taylor's (1992) study indicates that the frequency of the mentor/protege relationships were 49.1% for discussions of strategies to handle professional situations and 44.9% for providing opportunity for participation in professional activities. The percent of mentors valuing proteges as people as 72.1% and mentors that could be counted on for professional advice were 66.4%. Most mentor's (62.3%) believe in the potential of the protege. The percent of proteges who mastered the concepts and ideas modeled by the mentor were 55.2%. The integrity of the mentors, as perceived by the protege, was reported as 81.3%. The professional values of the mentors, perceived by the protege, was reported as 72%. There were 49.3% of the proteges that reported gaining confidence as well as 42.7% reported enjoying work. There were 37.5% who felt that they resolved conflict better. Findings indicated that mentoring did not strongly influence research and scholary endeavors such as publishing, writing, and presenting papers.

All the five studies in some way indicate that mentoring is perceived to be a positive influence for both the protege and the mentor.

Chapter III

Methodology

This chapter describes the methodology of the present research study. The research question for this study is; What are the perceived effects of the service relationship qualities (either mentoring or advocating) on females who are attending college and who are considered at-risk. The independent variable is services. Services is classified as a categorical variable because it is finite and specific in that you either received a service and developed a relationship or you did not. There are two levels of the independent variable services. The levels are mentoring and advocating or both. The independent variable is considered simple because the level of the service the youth are receiving is directly observable. One of the dependent variables is perception. Perception is a construct because it is not directly observable and can be indirectly measured through a survey or inventory. The other dependent variable is career advancement whether academically or outside of the academic realm. This is classified as learned categorical because it can be observed whether or not the subjects advanced within their program into higher education or advanced in their career situation. This can be self reported by a student.

Sample

The population targeted in this study is at-risk females who may vary in age but are enrolled in college. The defining characteristics are females at-risk. At risk may be defined by one or more factors. These include prior academic achievement, familial characteristics, and social support. The sample in this research is a convenient sample taken from the Notre Dame College undergraduate student pool. It is considered convenient in that the population is familiar to the researcher and is easily accessed. The classrooms that sampled included all levels, freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors, for the purpose of comparison.

Instrument

Students completed a three page questionnaire at supervised classrooms arranged before class periods. The questionnaire designed for this study is based on previous research on mentor relationships by Elinor Elis (1988). The questionnaire, found in Appendix A, consists of fifty two items. These items were based on elements that previous researchers found in mentoring programs for college students. The questionnaire was modified for this study to only include questions that are directly related to the students perceptions of their mentors. Forty five items on the questionnaire were set up in a 5 point Likert scale. Students were asked to check one of the following answers for each item, strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree. Sixty two surveys were filled out and analyzed. Seven questions were attached to the instrument asking background information including gender, description of school (public or private) and class level (Freshmen/Sophomores verses Juniors/Seniors). Students were also invited to give their name and telephone number if they would be willing to be further interviewed.

Data Collection

Two professors at Notre Dame College agreed to survey their classrooms. The directions were read out loud to the students. The survey was distributed to all the students present in the classroom who voluntarily agree to complete the survey. The male students participated for the purpose of comparison only. The survey was distributed to 62 students for quantitative data collection. There were 40 students total that were not present in their scheduled class period. The survey asked questions about any mentoring relationships the student may have experienced. The survey also asked perceptions of mentoring relationships. The survey was collected immediately after completion. A quanlitative data protocol, found in Appendix C, was developed after initial analysis of the survey data. A student voluntarily agreed to be interviewed further by writing her name and telephone number at the bottom of the survey. Contact with that student was made, by phone, requesting an interview in order to collect qualitative data on the individual's

perceptions of the positive mentoring relationship. The student signed an Informed Consent, found in Appendix B, for interview purposes.

Analysis

Codes were given to represent the answers that were checked on the instrument. This is a form of classification. The number five was recorded if a student answered strongly agree, four for agree, three for neutral, two for disagree, and a one for strongly disagree. A nominal scale was used because the levels of these variables (agree, disagree) are qualitative in nature. The instances of each answer was classified and then counted. The frequency of each classification given for each item was then compared within each category. The numbers were compared quantitatively. All students were given an identification number (i.e. 001, 002, 003) to represent their names to insure confidentiality.

The inferential procedure used for analyzing the nominal data was the nonparametric test called chi-square. Chi-square measures the discrepancy between the observed frequency and the expected frequency. The two frequencies of individuals at each level are presented in a contingency table. The relationship between the two variables were examined. The null hypotheses states that there is no relationship and the two variables are independent. The alternative hypotheses states that the two variables are related. The expected frequency is the frequency that would be expected if sampling is random from population proportions that are unknown. The expected values under the null hypothesis are estimated from the sample data, and the expected frequencies are calculated using these estimates.

Frequency distributions are displayed as tables and graphs. The graphs are based completely on the tabled scores. The graphs do not contain any new information. The bars are drawn to represent each frequency or number in that category. The various groups have been arranged along the horizontal axis. The bars that touch each other emphasize the quantitative relationship between the categories or items.

The mean was calculated taking the sum of the raw scores for each item and dividing it by the total number scored. This is a measure of central tendency of each distribution. The second characteristic of distributions that is reported is the variability of the distribution. This is the extent to which scores are different from each other or dispersed. The variability is represented by the standard deviation. The standard deviation is a measure of the average deviation of the scores about the mean. The mean is represented in the bar graphs. The probability value or *p* value is shown in the tables. This is to show the likelihood that a statistical result would have been obtained by chance alone. If the *p* value is less than .05, the results are significant.

As stated previously appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Information that was obtained from the fifty two item questionnaire was recorded and analyzed using a Bartlett test for homogeneity of group variances. Groups based on three variances (gender, public or private school, and class levels freshman/sophomore, junior/senior) were compared. Chi-square was used to identify any significant statistical differences. Frequency distributions are described in narrative form. Information obtained from the survey will be further discussed within the individual interview, found in Appendix D, in order to identify the qualities that make up a successful mentoring relationship. Thematic inductive analyses were used to complement the quantitative results.

Ethical Guidelines

The methods of data collection in this study met with the American Psychological Association of ethical requirements for research. All participation in this study was on a strictly voluntary basis. Participants were informed that all answers were confidential. Each survey was given an identification number to ensure anonymity.

The interviews conducted were done so with a participant who willingly desired to contribute further to this study. A Consent Form was signed and placed in a sealed envelope to ensure complete confidentiality and to abide by the ethical guidelines.

Procedural Issues

An experimental interview protocol found in Appendix C was developed. The interview protocol consisted of five questions. These questions are as follows; 1) who was your mentor, 2) What were the sorts of things that initially started the relationship, 3) What would you say were the qualities that made your mentor a good one, 4) What decisions did your mentor help you make, 5) were there decisions you made that were influenced by what you learned from your mentor. The interview was recorded and then transcribed. Information obtained from the interview can be found in Appendix D.

Chapter IV

The data from the research analysis are presented in three sections of this chapter. Each section will highlight the significant statistical results after applying T tests. The independent variables examined were gender (female versus male), schools (public versus private), and class levels (Freshmen/Sophomores versus Juniors/Seniors).

As stated previously, in order to understand what factors must exist to develop and more fully utilize the mentoring relationship as it pertains to the college environment, further exploration is needed. Question number one asks what are undergraduate students' perceptions of mentoring relationships. Refer to Table 1.

When looking at the whole sample, students were most positive responding to item 8 (a mentor should be open minded). This item displayed the highest mean 4.694 and a standard deviation of .499 on the 5 point scale. Item 3 (a mentor should be accessible to help) displayed the second highest mean 4.689, with standard deviation of .467. Item 15 (my mentor challenges, encourages, and assists me in improving my skills for my future career) obtained a mean of 4.645, with a standard deviation .482. Item 16 (my mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities towards which I aspire) obtained a mean of 4.492, with a standard deviation .566. Item 43 (my mentor ended our relationship) obtained the lowest mean 1.700 and a standard deviation of .869. Item 41 (I ended my relationship with my mentor because she/he acted in ways I didn't like) obtained the second lowest mean 1.712, standard deviation of .911. Item 42 (my mentor and I have since drifted apart) obtained a mean of 1.984, with a standard deviation of 1.008. Item 26 (I needed advice concerning my financial problems books, food, rent, car, etc.) obtained a mean of 2.717, with a standard deviation of 1.209. As shown in Table 2.

Table 1

Whole sample mean and standard deviation

Item#	Statement	Mean	SD
1	A mentor should be concerned about my academic performance.	4.339	0.723
2	A mentor should be willing to make constructive suggestions.	4.645	0.482
3	A mentor should be accessible to help.	4.689	0.467
4	A mentor should provide moral support.	4.613	0.662
5	A mentor should show interest in my professional growth.	4.548	0.619
6	A mentor should have the capacity to establish connections for me.	3.919	1.013
7	A mentor should have a willingness for mutual trust.	4.565	0.59
8	A mentor should be open minded.	4.694	0.499
9	A mentor should personify good teaching.	4.516	0.695
10	My mentor should be easy to get along with.	4.403	0.664
11	My mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about personal concerns.	4.066	0.873
12	My mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about professional concerns.	4.484	0.565
13	My mentor teaches me how to use various interpersonal techniques.	4.2	0.659
14	My mentor believes in me and supports me as a candidate for a future position in my field.	4.508	0.674
15	My mentor challenges, encourages, & assists me in improving my skills for my future career.	4.645	0.482

Item#	Statement	Mean	SD
16	My mentor's coaching helps me to improve my overall GPA		
17	My mentor's coaching helps me to improve my overall GPA.	3.79	0.943
18	My mentor helps me to achieve my professional objectives.	4.295	0.667
19	My mentor introduces me to influential people & informs me of career opportunities.	4.032	0.905
20	My mentor stands up for me & defends me against others even if I may have erred.	3.468	1.067
21	My mentor has good ideas that get positive results from their work.	4.29	0.663
22	My mentor is sensitive to the experiences that I brought to NDC.	3.935	0.847
23	I needed help in adjusting to my courses of study.	3.153	1.031
24	I needed help to determine if I was in the right field, i.e. career choice.	2.836	1.186
25	I needed help in solving my study problems.	2.738	1.153
26	I needed advice concerning my financial problems (books, food, rent, car, etc.).	2.717	1.209
27	I admire my mentor's courage.	3.984	0.826
28	I admire my mentor's academic skills.	4.161	0.772
29	I admire my mentor's leadership role.	4.295	0.715
30	I admire my mentor's dedication and concern (caring).	4.417	0.671
31	I admire my mentor's good teaching skills.	4.328	0.79
32	The relationship with my mentor has raised my self-esteem.	4.049	0.939

Item#	Statement	Mean	SD
33	The relationship with my mentor has increased my courage.	4.032	0.905
34	The relationship with my mentor has increased my determination.	4.113	0.791
35	The relationship with my mentor has increased my desire to achieve.	4.194	0.827
36	The relationship with my mentor has encouraged academic growth.	4.131	0.846
37	My mentor has a strong self-concept.	4.323	0.719
38	My mentor has experiences worth sharing.	4.419	0.666
39	My mentor has foresight.	4.279	0.733
40	Presently my mentor and I are now friends	4.097	0.844
41	I ended my relationship with my mentor because she/he acted in ways I didn't like.	1.712	0.911
42	My mentor and I have since drifted apart.	1.984	1.008
43	My mentor ended our relationship.	1.7	0.869
44	My mentor is still my mentor.	4.048	0.982
45	My mentor and I no longer have a relationship due to other reasons.	1.705	0.863

Table 2

Whole sample high and low means

Item#	Statement	Mean	SD
8	A mentor should be open minded.	4.694	0.499
3	A mentor should be accessible to help.	4.689	0.467
15	My mentor Challenges, encourages, & assists me in improving my skills for my future career.	4.645	0.482
16	My mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities towards which I aspire.	4.492	0.566
26	I needed advice concerning my financial problems (books, food, rent, car, etc.).	2.717	1.209
42	My mentor and I have since drifted apart.	1.984	1.008
41	I ended my relationship with my mentor.	1.712	0.911
43	My mentor ended our relationship.	1.7	0.869

Gender Comparisons

The first question explored was similarities between female and male perceptions of mentoring relationships. There were ten items where groups differed significantly. The most significant statistical difference between females and males and their perceptions of a mentoring relationship appeared in item 26 (I needed advice concerning my financial problems (books, food, rent, car, etc.)). The females average mean of 2.857, the males 2.091. There was a mean difference of .766. The second largest mean difference was with item 28 (I admire my mentor's academic skills). The females obtained a mean of 4.275, the males 3.636, with a mean difference of .639. The third largest mean difference was with item 36 (the relationship with my mentor has encouraged my academic growth). The females obtained a mean of 4.24, the males 3.636, with a mean difference of .604. Item 39 (my mentor has foresight) was the only item that the female mean 1.667 was lower than the male mean 1.909. Overall, the females tended to be more positive than the male students. As can be seen in Table 3 and bar chart, significant gender comparisons, are found on the following pages.

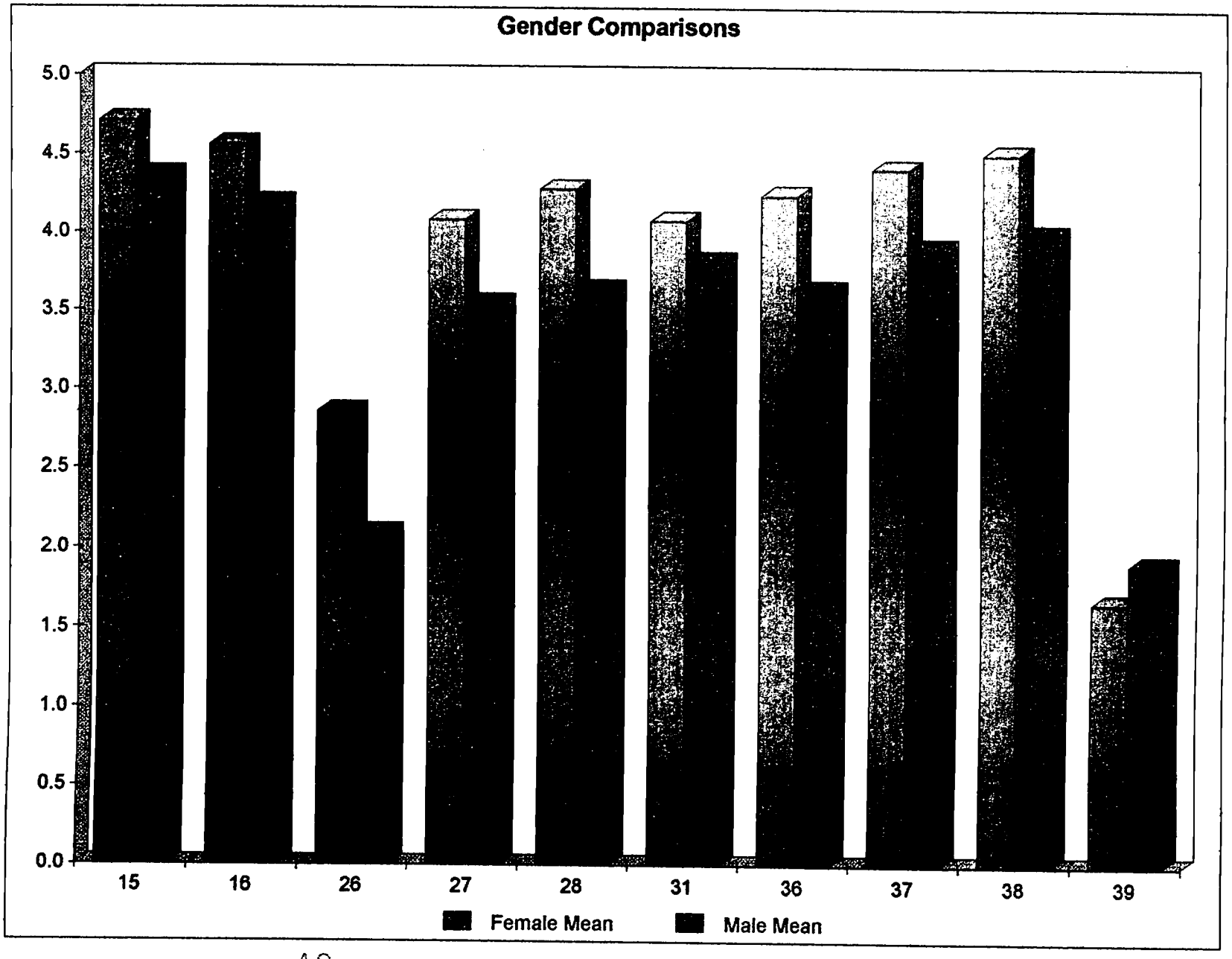
All 51 females and 11 males responding to item 15 (my mentor challenges, encourages, and assists me in improving my skills for my future career) either strongly agreed or agreed. Out of 51 females, responding to item 16 (my mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities toward which I aspire) 29 strongly agreed, 20 agreed, 1 was neutral, and 1 did not respond. In contrast 3 males responding strongly agreed, 7 agreed, and 1 was neutral. For item 26 (I needed advice concerning my financial problems) 6 females responding strongly agreed, 8 agreed, 13 were neutral, 17 disagreed, 5 strongly disagreed and 2 did not respond. No men responding strongly agreed, 2 agreed, 1 was neutral, 4 disagreed, and 4 strongly disagreed. For item 27, (I admire my mentor's courage) 16 females responding strongly agreed, 24 agreed, 9 were neutral, 1 strongly disagreed and 1 did not respond. One male responding strongly agreed, 4 agreed, and 6 were neutral. For item 28 (I admire my mentor's academic skills) 20 females

responding strongly agreed, 26 agreed, 4 were neutral, and one disagreed. Two males responding strongly agreed, 4 agreed, 4 were neutral and 1 disagreed. For item 31 (I admire my mentor's good teaching skills) 29 females responding strongly agreed, 16 agreed, 5 were neutral, and 1 did not respond. Two males responding strongly agreed, 4 agreed, 4 were neutral and 1 disagreed. For item 36 (the relationship with my mentor has encouraged my academic growth) 22 females responding strongly agreed, 19 agreed, 8 were neutral, 1 disagreed, and 1 did not respond. Two males responding strongly agreed, 4 agreed, 4 were neutral, and 1 disagreed. For item 37 (my mentor has a strong self-concept) 26 females responding strongly agreed, 20 agreed, and 5 were neutral. Three males responding strongly agreed, 4 agreed, and 4 were neutral. For item 38 (my mentor has experiences worth sharing) 28 females responding strongly agreed, 21 agreed, and 2 were neutral. Four males responding strongly agreed, 3 agreed, and 4 were neutral. For item 39 (my mentor has foresight) 26 females responding strongly agreed, 18 agreed, 6 were neutral and 1 did not respond. One male responding strongly agreed, 6 agreed, and 4 were neutral. As seen in Table 3.

Table 3

Significant gender comparisons

Item#	Statement	Female Mean	Male Mean	p- value
15	My mentor challenges, encourages, and assists me in improving my skills for my future career.	4.706	4.364	0.032
16	My mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities toward which I aspire.	4.56	4.182	0.044
26	I needed advice concerning my financial problems (books, food, rent, car, etc.).	2.857	2.091	0.057
27	I admire my mentor's courage.	4.08	3.545	0.051
28	I admire my mentor's academic skills.	4.275	3.636	0.012
31	I admire my mentor's good teaching skills.	4.078	3.818	0.001
36	The relationship with my mentor has encouraged my academic growth.	4.24	3.636	0.031
37	My mentor has a strong self-concept.	4.412	3.909	0.034
38	My mentor has experiences worth sharing.	4.51	4	0.02
39	My mentor has foresight.	1.667	1.909	0.005


Gender Comparisons
5.0
4.5
4.0
3.5
3.0
2.5
2.0
1.5
1.0
0.5
0.0
15
16
26
27
28
31
36
37
38
39
Female Mean
Male Mean

School Comparisons

The second question explored the similarities and differences between perceptions of students attending public school and students attending private school. There were seven items where these groups significantly differed. The most significant statistical difference was found in item 13 (my mentor teaches me how to use various interpersonal techniques). The public school mean was 4.34, the private school mean, 3.692, with a mean difference of .648. The second highest mean difference was found in item 16 (my mentor helps me to achieve my professional objectives). The public school mean was 4.604, private school mean, 4, with a mean difference of .604. The third highest mean difference was found in item 37 (my mentor has a strong self-concept). The public school mean was 4.438, the private school mean, 3.923 with a mean difference of .515. Overall, students from public schools tended to agree more with the statements than those from private schools. Table 3 and bar chart list items with significant comparisons of public and private schools.

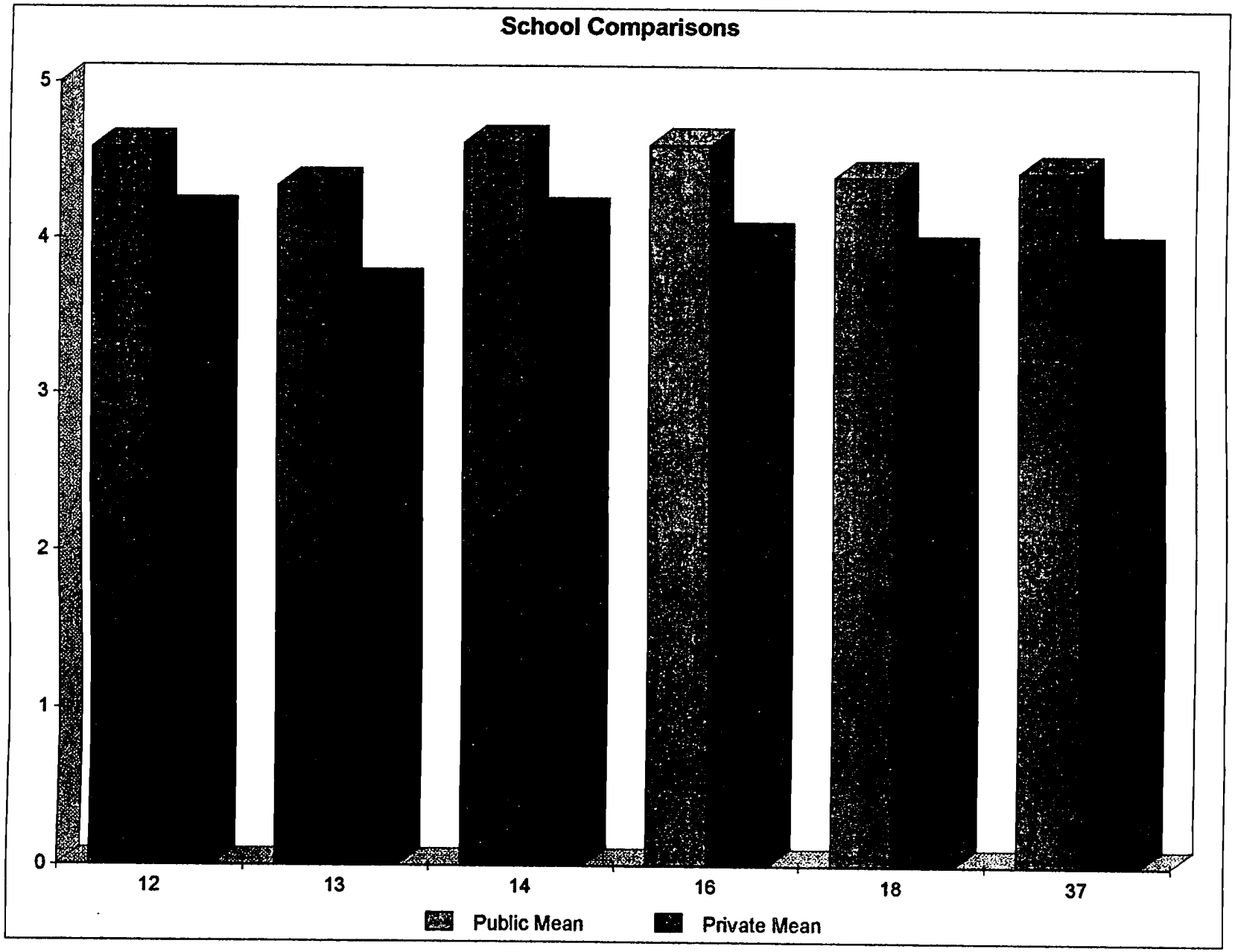
Overall, every student except one identified whether they attended public or private school. Out of 48 students who attended public schools, 29 responding to item12 (my mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about professional concerns) strongly agreed, 18 agreed, and 1 was neutral. In contrast 3 students from private schools responding strongly agreed, 9 disagreed and 1 was neutral. For item 13 (my mentor teaches me how to use various interpersonal techniques) 19 public school students responding strongly agreed, 25 agreed, 3 were neutral and one did not respond. Ten private school students responding agreed, 2 were neutral, and 1 disagreed. For item 14 (my mentor believes in me and supports me as a candidate for a future position in my field) 31 public school students responding strongly agreed, 15 agreed, 1 disagreed and 1 did not respond. Four private school students responding strongly agreed 8 agreed and 1 disagreed. For item 16 (my mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities toward which I aspire) 30 public school students strongly responding agreed, 17 agreed

and 1 was neutral. One private school student responding strongly agreed, 10 agreed, 1 was neutral and 1 did not respond. For item 18 (My mentor helps me to achieve my professional objectives) 23 public school kids responding strongly agreed, 20 agreed, 4 were neutral and 1 did not respond. Two private school students responding strongly agreed, 8 disagreed and 3 were neutral. For item 37 (my mentor has strong self-concept) 26 public school students responding strongly agreed, 17 agreed, and 5 were neutral. Three private school students responding strongly agreed, 6 agreed and 4 were neutral. For item 38 (my mentor has experiences worth sharing) 28 public school students responding strongly agreed, 17 agreed and 3 were neutral. Four private school students responding strongly agreed, 6 agreed, and 3 were neutral. As seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Significant comparisons of public and private schools

Item#	Statement	Public Mean	Private Mean	p- value
12	My mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about professional concerns.	4.583	4.154	0.014
13	My mentor teaches me how to use various interpersonal techniques.	4.34	3.692	0.001
14	My mentor believes in me and supports me as a candidate for a future position in my field.	4.617	4.154	0.028
16	My mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities toward which I aspire.	4.604	4	0.001
18	My mentor helps me to achieve my professional objectives.	4.404	3.923	0.021
37	My mentor has a strong self-concept.	4.438	3.923	0.022
38	My mentor has experiences worth sharing.	4.521	4.077	0.033


School Comparisons
5
4
3
2
1
0
12
13
14
16
18
37
Public Mean
Private Mean

Class Comparisons

The third question examined the similarities and differences of perceptions between students in lower and upper classes. For the purpose of identification the term "lower classmen" refers to Freshmen and Sophomore. The term "upper classmen" refers to Juniors and Seniors. There were eleven items showing significant differences .The most significant statistical difference was found with item 9 (a mentor should personify good teaching). The Freshmen/Sophomores obtained a mean of 4.233, the Junior/Seniors obtained a mean of 4.781. The mean difference was .548. The second highest mean difference was found in item 7 (a mentor should have a willingness for mutual trust). The Freshmen/Sophomores obtained a mean of 4.3, Junior/Seniors obtained a mean of 4.813. The mean difference .513. The third highest mean difference was found in item 21 (my mentor has good ideas that get positive results from their work). The Freshman/Sophomore mean was 4.033, the Junior/Senior mean 4.531. The mean difference .498. As shown in Table 4, the older students agreed more strongly than the younger students.

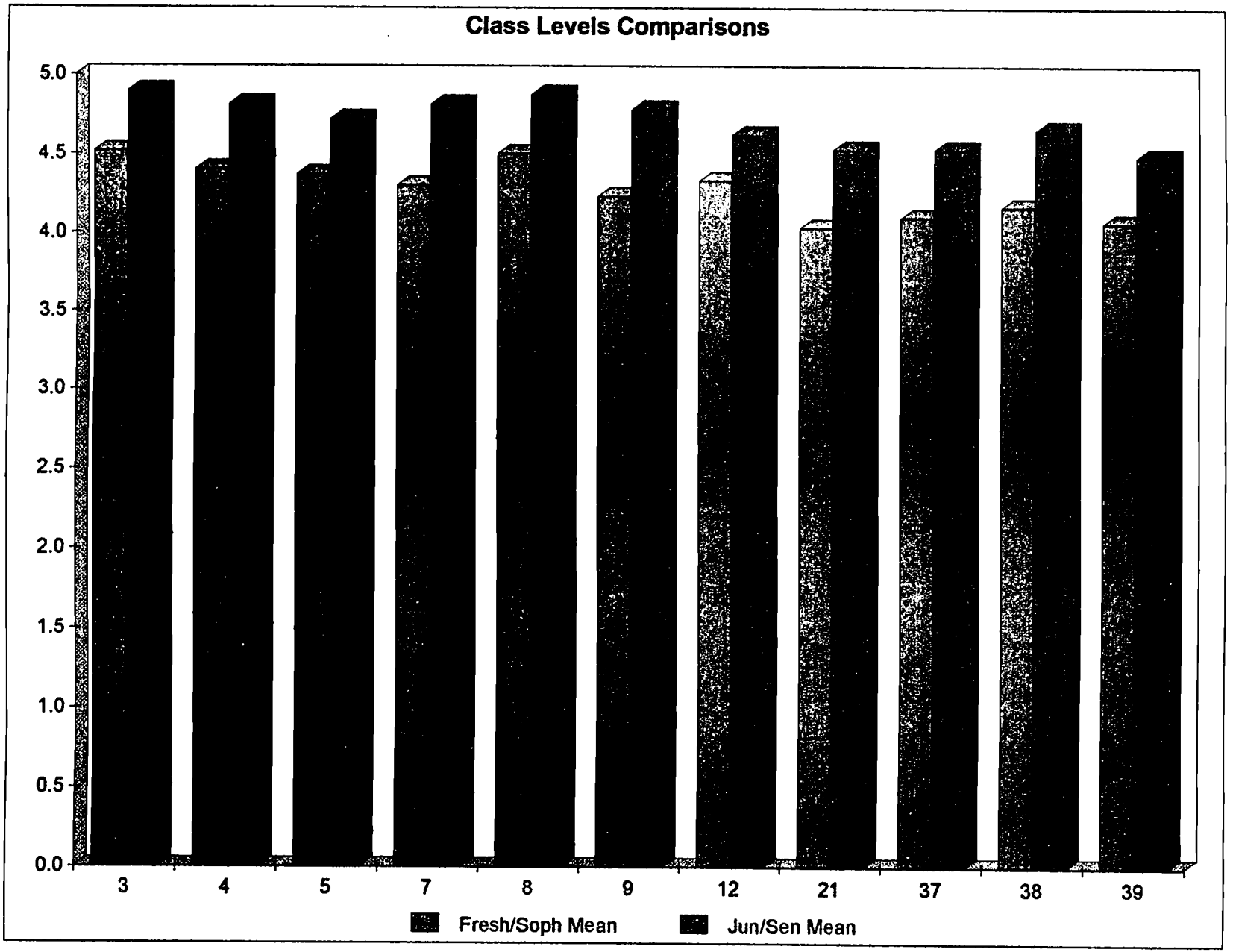
Item 3 (a mentor should be accessible to help) 15 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 14 agreed and 1 did not respond. In contrast 27 upper classmen responding strongly agreed and 5 agreed. For item 4 (a mentor should provide moral support) 17 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 8 agreed, and 5 were neutral. Twenty seven upper classmen responding agreed, 4 agreed and 1 was neutral. For item 5 (a mentor should show interest in my professional growth) 14 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 14 agreed, 1 was neutral and 1 disagreed. Twenty three upper classmen strongly agreed, and 9 agreed. For item 7 (a mentor should have a willingness for mutual trust) 12 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 15 agreed, and 5 were neutral. Twenty six upper classmen responding strongly agreed, and 6 agreed. For item 8 (a mentor should be open minded) 16 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 13 agreed and 1 was neutral. Twenty eight upper classmen responding strongly agreed and 4 agreed.

For item 9 (a mentor should personify good teaching) 13 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 12 agreed, 4 were neutral and 1 disagreed. Twenty five upper classmen responding strongly agreed and 7 agreed. For item 12 (my mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about professional concerns) 12 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 16 agreed and 2 were neutral. Twenty upper classmen responding strongly agreed and 12 agreed. For item 21 (my mentor has good ideas that get positive results from their work)7 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 17 agreed, and 6 were neutral. Eighteen upper classmen responding strongly agreed, 13 agreed, and 1 was neutral. For item 37 (my mentor has a strong self-concept) 11 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 11 agreed, and 8 were neutral. Eighteen upper classmen responding strongly agreed, 13 agreed and 1 was neutral. For item 38 (my mentor has experiences worth sharing) 10 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 15 agreed, and 5 were neutral. Twenty two upper classmen responding strongly agreed, 9 agreed and 1 was neutral. For item 39 (my mentor has foresight) 10 lower classmen responding strongly agreed, 12 agreed, and 8 disagreed. Seventeen upper classmen strongly agreed, 12 agreed, 2 were neutral and 1 did not respond. As seen in Table 5.

Table 5

Significant comparisons of freshmen/sophmore and junior/senior

Item#	Statement	Fresh/Soph Mean	Jun/Sen Mean	p-value
3	A mentor should be accessible to help.	4.517	4.894	0.005
4	A mentor should provide moral support.	4.4	4.813	0.013
5	A mentor should show interest in my professional growth.	4.367	4.719	0.024
7	A mentor should have a willingness for mutual trust.	4.3	4.813	0
8	A mentor should be open minded.	4.5	4.875	0.002
9	A mentor should personify good teaching.	4.233	4.781	0.001
12	My mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about professional concerns.	4.33	4.625	0.041
21	My mentor has good ideas that get positive results from their work.	4.033	4.531	0.002
37	My mentor has a strong self-concept.	4.1	4.531	0.017
38	My mentor has experiences worth sharing.	4.167	4.656	0.003
39	My mentor has foresight.	4.067	4.484	0.025


Class Levels Comparisons
5.0
4.5
4.0
3.5
3.0
2.5
2.0
1.5
1.0
0.5
0.0
3
4
5
7
8
9
12
21
37
38
39
Fresh/Soph Mean
Jun/Sen Mean

Overall the research indicates that students are more positive about the perceptions of mentoring relationship including open mindedness, and availability. Students who appear to have a mentor indicate that the mentoring relationship have ended. Student's relationships with their mentors appear not to end due to negative situations such as inappropriate behaviors. Female students tend to be more positive about mentoring relationships than males with one exception. A mentor having foresight appears to be less important to females than males. Public school students are more favorable in their responses than private school students to mentoring relationships which is counter intuitive. This could be due to the negative qualities of the mentoring relationships that existed between private school students and their mentors. This could also be an indication of negative factors surrounding the students reason for attending private school. For example the parent may have wanted a private school education for their child while the child may have wanted to attend public school. As expected older students respond more favorably than younger students about the mentoring relationships.

Chapter V.

This chapter has six sections. The first section presents the conclusions that are supported by this study. The second section discusses the relationships to prior research found in chapter two. The third section discusses the implication for Guidance Counseling. The fourth section briefly discusses possible future research. The fifth and sixth section discuss the limitations and what this researcher learned through the process.

Conclusions

There are a number of conclusions from this study. First women are more positive in their perceptions of the mentoring relationship than men with the one exception (my mentor has foresight). This would coincide with the idea that women value relationship more than men. A mentoring relationship within the school environment would allow women to experience a more positive transition from high school to career track.

The conclusions from the present study also indicated that women value academic assistance from their mentors. The perceptions that mentors should have good teaching skills, encourage academic growth, and give advice concerning financial problems (housing, books, etc.) indicate that although women value the relationship piece of mentoring they also are looking for certain academic qualities and direction from their mentors. Academic skills could be valued more at Notre Dame because of the high number of future teachers who attend the college.

The present study's conclusions also indicate that students from public schools tend to be more positive than private schools. This may seem counterintuitive from the way it would be hypothesized. Private schools have been considered institutions that provide smaller classrooms and far more individualized attention. It would only stand to reason that students who attend private schools have better access to mentoring relationships. The data indicate that students who attended public school and experienced mentoring relationships found them to be much more positive than the students who attended private schools.

Upper classmen reported more positive perceptions of mentoring than lower classmen. This could be an indication of how instrumental the relationship is in helping the students stay in school. It appears that the upperclassmen who made it to the upper levels may have used the mentoring relationship to help them get where they are.

Relationship to Prior Research

According to Ann Gibbons (1992), many women lack mentors and therefore pay the high price of entering their careers less prepared. Based on this idea females at Notre Dame College are considered at risk because within educational facilities males tend to have more opportunity to develop mentoring relationships.

In a study done by Laurie Jowers Taylor (1992), female nursing students were asked what qualities of the mentor are the most important to the protege. Integrity was rated at eighty-one percent followed by professional values at seventy-one percent. Professional values appears to be important to female nursing students. When looking at the whole sample, the perception that a mentor should exemplify the essence of the professional qualities towards which I aspire, indicates that students especially females, attach themselves to mentors who presents themselves professionally in ways that the students can relate to and desire to emulate.

In a study done by David Murray (1991) the general perceptions of teachers towards the mentoring process were looked at. Murray found that among the most highly valued competencies were areas that focused on social skills and providing assistance. Murray's results are consistent with data from the present study in that the perceptions indicated on item 15 and 26 (my mentor challenges, encourages, and assists me in improving my skills for my future career and I needed advice concerning my financial problems (books, food, rent, car, etc.) were perceived as positive and statistically significant. Social skills within the professional teaching environment appear to be very important for teachers as well as for students who are aspiring to be in the teaching profession.

In a study done by Kathryn Smoot Egan (1993), women in broadcast communication were surveyed in order to measure their mentoring experiences. In this study women who had mentors were more likely to believe the best way to learn is through experience. Life experiences, guided by a mentor, can help the protege to understand what she must accomplish for career success. According to the present study's data women students valued a mentor who had experiences worth sharing. It is clear that experiences within a learning context are highly valuable to women students whether they are their own experiences guided by a mentor or the mentor,s experiences relayed for guidance.

Implications for Guidance Counseling

Particularly for female students, mentoring is a key factor in their overall career success. Academic advisors on the college level should pay attention to the characteristics that are most valued. Within all the comparisons, gender, schools, and class levels, item 39 (my mentor has foresight) was perceived as positive. The ability of an academic advisor to be able to relate to the student and potentially envision the student's future path is very important. Advisors should actively learn and seek to understand, as part of their job, the many career avenues that can be taken and explored in order to have better foresight for their students future aspirations. Advisors should self reflect on their own experiences before relating to their various students and be able to bring to mind experiences worth sharing that pertain to the different students, especially females students. Experience sharing could be a very important tool used in guiding students with social skills that could better prepare them for their future careers.

Counselors at the high school level should attempt to make better links with the academic advisors of colleges that they are recommending. Currently guidance counselors may visit the college in order to evaluate the campus size, programs offered, and the living space. More attention paid to the qualities of the advising personnel and what the process of advising at a particular school may be, could help provide female students with more

opportunity to have mentors or develop mentoring relationships. Also running mentoring awareness workshops and peer mentoring groups as a means of introducing female students to the idea of mentors and the benefits of mentoring relationships. As indicated by the present study, mentoring relationships are perceived to be positive for females. Here are some of the qualities that a mentor should have: strong self-concept, foresight, courage, and academic skills. Mentors should also be able to provide students with challenges, encouragement, and assistance in improving skills for the students future use. They should be able to assist students in their present needs such as advice concerning their finances, books, food, rent, and traveling expenses. In particular, the mentors should be "walking the walk and talking the talk" of their students. They should be an example, a model, for the students and what the students aspire to be.

Future Research

For future research, a quasi experiment, assigning female students inclusive of students who are more ethnically diverse than the students in this study into explicit mentoring programs that provide mentors to the students, with qualities that are most valued. The independent variable would be mentoring with several dependent variables such as school success, grade point average, career aspiration, and perceptions of the relationship. Another study would be a longitudinal study on students following their progress through all the class levels and looking to see if the students who were successful in completing all four years tended to develop positive mentoring relationships. Variables such as the gender of the mentor and the gender of the protege should be looked at. Specifically male mentor/female protege and female mentor/female protege. Another independent variable would be mentoring the dependent variables would be academic success and career or graduate school placement. A third study would be to look at perceptions of mentoring with the mentor identified and the time frame of when the mentoring relationship occurred. Another independent variable to this study could be

school (public versus private). A forth study would be to look at students who are in a formal mentoring program versus students who found their mentor on their own.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. The first concerns the nature of the sample. The females are mostly white students enrolled in teaching programs. This may limit the generalizability of this studies findings. Another limitation is the nature of self report. In self reporting it would be fair to say that information is not always recorded that reflects the individuals true perceptions.

Self Reflection

There have been many periods in my life that I experienced tremendous mentoring relationships. I can recall imitating certain behaviors that were modeled by my parents that have helped me to succeed in my life. There have also been many areas, specifically my education, where I lacked mentoring relationships and felt less certain about the road that I chose to travel. Academically I was never assigned advisors that provided me with the special support that I needed. It is in my estimation that the relationships did not develop between my two academic advisors and myself due to gender issues and very different life circumstances. Both advisors were males, in their late forties, who had been married while pursuing their graduate degrees, at a much younger age than myself. In short they didn't "walk the walk or talk the talk" of a female, parent without a partner, going to school in her late twenties or early thirties. I did however seek out females in the different colleges that I attended who could provide me with the support, advice and foresight. These women had similar life experiences that I could relate to and I viewed them as very successful women.

Women need mentors with life experiences that they can relate to. It is also important that students see reflections of themselves in their mentors in order to envision their own success. For women, success without a positive mentoring relationship can

happen and does happen. Yet success with a positive mentoring relationship is a relationship worth seeking.

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Appendix A: Survey Instrument

A Mentoring Questionnaire

Directions: Please read the following definitions carefully as they will help you to understand and be able to respond to the questions. Check the box that reflects your opinions.

Definitions

Mentor: The educational mentor is one who guides, counsels, supports, shares models, and welcomes the protege into the professional world.

Protege': One whose welfare or career is promoted by an influential person.

Item #	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	A mentor should be concerned about my academic performance.					
2	A mentor should be willing to make constructive suggestions.					
3	A mentor should be accessible to help.					
4	A mentor should provide moral support.					
5	A mentor should show interest in my professional growth.					
6	A mentor should have the capacity to establish connections for me.					
7	A mentor should have a willingness for mutual trust.					
8	A mentor should be open minded.					
9	A mentor should personify good teaching.					
10	My mentor should be easy to get along with.					
11	My mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about personal concerns.					
12	My mentor is interested and available to hear and counsel me about professional concerns.					
13	My mentor teaches me how to use various interpersonal techniques.					
14	My mentor believes in me and supports me as a candidate for a future position in my field.					
15	My mentor challenges, encourages, & assists me in improving my skills for my future career.					
16	My mentor exemplifies the essence of the professional qualities toward which I aspire.					

17	My mentor's coaching helps me to improve my overall GPA.					
18	My mentor helps me to achieve my professional objectives.					
19	My mentor introduces me to influential people & informs me of career opportunities.					
20	My mentor stands up for me & defends me against others even if I may have erred.					
21	My mentor has good ideas that get positive results from their work.					
22	My mentor is sensitive to the experiences that I brought to NDC.					
23	I needed help in adjusting to my courses of study.					
24	I needed help to determine if I was in the right field, i.e. career choice.					
25	I needed help in solving my study problems.					
26	I needed advice concerning my financial problems (books, food, rent, car, etc.).					
27	I admire my mentor's courage.					
28	I admire my mentor's academic skills.					
29	I admire my mentor's leadership role.					
30	I admire my mentor's dedication and concern (caring).					
31	I admire my mentor's good teaching skills.					
32	The relationship with my mentor has raised my self-esteem.					
33	The relationship with my mentor has increased my courage.					
34	The relationship with my mentor has increased my determination.					
35	The relationship with my mentor has increased my desire to achieve.					
36	The relationship with my mentor has encouraged academic growth.					

37	My mentor has a strong self-concept.					
38	My mentor has experiences worth sharing.					
39	My mentor has foresight.					
40	Presently my mentor and I are now friends					
41	I ended my relationship with my mentor because she/he acted in ways I didn't like.					
42	My mentor and I have since drifted apart.					
43	My mentor ended our relationship.					
44	My mentor is still my mentor.					
45	My mentor and I no longer have a relationship due to other reasons.					

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please circle the answer that applies to you.

Class level: Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

Major:_____

Gender: Female Male

Age: 17-27 27-37 37-47 47-

What best describes your High School: Public Private

Large (500-1000) Small (100-500) Other_____

Mixed Gender Single Sex

If you have had a positive mentoring experience I would like to interview you further. Please put your name and telephone number if you would be willing to be interviewed.

Name:_____

Telephone:_____

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY

Appendix B: Informed Consent For Interview

Informed Consent

I understand the purpose of this interview is related to research concerning the topic of mentoring. I am participating in this interview on a voluntary basis with the understanding that my responses will remain completely confidential.

_____

Signature Date

Appendix C: Interview Protocol

Thank you for participating in this study. Please understand that the conversation will be taped. The interviewer will ask you to sign a consent form agreeing to the taping. Your identification and the information that is recorded will be kept confidential. Here is a sample of some of the questions that will be asked.

1. Who was your mentor?

2. What were the sorts of things that initially started the relationship?

3. What would you say were the qualities that made your mentor a good one?

4. What decisions did your mentor help you make?

5. Were there decisions you made that were influenced by what you learned from your mentor?

Appendix D: Abbreviated Interview Responses

Question 1.

Who was your mentor?

The mentor that was spoken about was the protege's mother.

Question 2.

What were the sorts of things that initially started the relationship?

The mentor was seen as a mentor after the protege moved away from her mother's home. It was then that the student felt her relationship changed. Communication between the protege and mentor increased drastically. The protege then began to value her mentors opinions.

Question 3.

What would you say were the qualities that made your mentor a good one?

List of qualities:

Confident, very strong will, foresight, optimism, supportive, and able to back up what she believes in.

The mentor is able to see the protege as a smart person and backs the protege up when I need it most.

Question 4.

What decisions did your mentor help you make?

The protege made a decision about which college to go to and whether or not to live on campus. Specifically the protege looked at small colleges, close to her home town, based on the suggestion of the mentor. The protege feels the decision to come to Notre Dame was a good one because of the size. The protege was very nervous about the whole idea

of going to college and feels she has been successful due to the small size and the fact that it is only one hour away from her home town. If the protege was experiencing anything uncomfortable or overwhelming it was easy for her to drive home and be able to discuss it with her mentor.

Question 5.

Were there decisions you made that were influenced by what you learned from your mentor?

A decision was to remain at college instead of giving up and leaving. The protege felt that the mentor was instrumental in getting her through her first year. Not because she was with her but because the protege knew that the mentor thought she could handle college and that helped her to believe in herself. Another decision was to bring a tape recorder to school and tape her classes. This helped the protege improve her note taking. The protege now uses flash cards to study and also rewrites her notes. These have helped the protege to retain more information and do better on tests.

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